

REGIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

NCERT

MYSORE-570006

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN SOCIAL
SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES



TRAINING PROGRAMME IN CONTENT AND METHODOLOGY OF
TEACHING ENGLISH FOR THE KEY PERSONS OF
LAKSHADWEEP SECONDARY SCHOOL

N S RAGHUNATH
PROGRAMME COORDINATOR

MARCH 2003

FOREWORD

I am happy to know that the English Unit of DESSH conducted a 6-day "Training Programme in Content and Methodology of Teaching English for the Key Persons of Lakshadweep Secondary School" Shri N S Raghunath, Head, DESSH, was the Coordinator of the programme. He meticulously planned the programme and effectively carried it out. I know that the teachers of the archipelago badly need such enrichment courses in ELT. I'm told by the Coordinator that the course could not have been run without the cooperation of the three professors from Regional Institute of English, Bangalore. I sincerely thank them for their kind cooperation. I also thank Srimati Gayatri Devi Dutt, Director of Regional Institute of English, for readily agreeing to depute the experts to Kavaratti.

The Regional Institute of Education is thankful to Mr Muthukoya in Cochin Office and the Directorate of Lakshadweep in Kavaratti for making it possible for us to conduct the programme.

With Best Wishes

G Ravindra
Principal

Department of Education in Social Sciences and Humanities, RIEM


INTRODUCTORY WORDS

A 6-day "Training Programme in Content and Methodology of Teaching English for the Key Persons of Lakshadweep Secondary School" was conducted at Kavaratti between the 24th and 30th January. It was originally planned for 35 to 40 key persons but only 21 teachers could attend the programme. It was mainly because of the ship movement between islands is once in 7 to 10 days. Whoever could undertake the journey attended the course. Since Lakshadweep Islands don't have key persons, we had to accept the practicing teachers. The teachers were more than enthusiastic to receive instructions for they had had no exposure to ELT whatsoever until after we gave the training. Except for our old students, who were only three in number, everything was new to them. There were hardly any trained English teacher in the group. Most of them were science teachers forced to teach English. Since they were very receptive teachers, it was not very difficult to quickly improvise our materials.

The course consists of spoken English, new grammar, writing, teaching of poetry and recent trends in methodology. The resource persons were really upto the task. Their vast experience and their knowledge in the subject was evident in the way they responded to the situation. Professor Shivadasan, Professor Srinath and Professor Kamali Rao, all from Regional Institute of English, Bangalore, were highly cooperative in running the course. The participants were highly appreciative of their teaching. I should be thankful to them for agreeing to journey all the way from Bangalore to Kavaratti to help the Institute in running the course. I don't believe the course would have been possible had they not helped as resource persons. I should also be thankful to the Director of RIE, Srimati Gayatri Devi Dutt in agreeing to depute them journey to Kavaratti.

The course was organized at the request of the Lakshadweep Administration. It was fully funded by NCERT. The Education Secretary of Lakshadweep, who inaugurated the course, was highly appreciative of the NCERT's gesture. The Institute is thankful to Mr Muthukoya of Cochin office for his cooperation. The Special Officer for Education Mr Venkatachala and the English subject Expert of the Directorate of Education were highly cooperative in organizing and running the course. I am profoundly thankful to them.

Date 23 3 03
Place RIE, Mysore


N S Raghunath
(Head, DESSH
& Coordinator)

KEY WORDS FOR ENGLISH PHONETIC SYMBOL

<u>NO</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Key Words</u>	Example suitable for children		
			<u>Initial</u>	<u>Middle</u>	<u>Final</u>
1	/i:/	bee bead beat	eat	neat	see
2	/ɪ/	city bid bit	ill	live	baby
3	/e/	bed bet	egg	peg	—
4	/æ/	bad bat	apple	man	—
5	/a:/	bar saw	arm	charm	car
6	/ɔ/ or /e/	dog fog	ox	doctor	—
7	/ɔ:/	raw tall walk	oar	horse	sore
8	/ʊ/ or /ʊ /	put pull	—	Foot	—
9	/u:/	grew food root	ooze	fool	flew
10	/ʌ/	bud but	uncle	buckle	—
11	/ə:/ or /ɜ /	bur bird birch	earth	birth	err
12	/ə	about better doctor	affect	woman	waiter

No 1, 5, 7, 9 and 11 are all long vowels
 No 3, 4, 6, 8 and 10 never occur at the end of the word in English

CŌNSŌNANTS : THE STŌP CŌNSŌNANTS

1	2		
	<u>Example suitable for children</u>		
IPA Symbol	Initial	Middle	Final
/ p / as in pit	pig	apple	soup
/ b / as in bit	bed	baby	tub
/ t / as in tip	table	button	cat
/ d / as in dip	dog	ladder	bed
/ k / as in kit	cat	cookie	cake
/ g / as in girl	gas	wagon	egg

THE FRICATIVE CŌNSONANTS

	Initial	Middle	Final
/ f / as in fan	fort	elephant	leaf
/ v / as in van	vegetable	television	five
/ θ / as in thigh	thumb	toothbrush	mouth
/ ð / as in this	that	mother	smooth
/ s / as in sip	soup	biscuit	bus
/ z / as in zip	zoo	music	nose
/ ʃ / as in ship	shoe	dishes	fish
/ ʒ / as in	genre	treasure	garage
/ h / as in hat	hand	grasshopper	_____

Diphthongs

13	/eɪ/	Say, maid
14	ou/	go, road, rout
15	/aɪ/	buy, raid, rite
16	/au/	brow, crowd, bout
17	/ɔɪ/	boy, oil, moist
18	/ɪə /	idea, beard, pears
19	/ eə /	spare, spared, scarle
20	/ ɔə /	more, poured, cause
21	/uə /	poor, cared, stewart

diphthongs are all long

AFRICATIVE CONSONANTS

	Initial	Middle	Final
/ tʃ / as in chin	chair	ketchup	witch
/ dʒ / as in gem	jelly	magic	cage

THE NASAL CONSONANTS

/m/ as in met	man	common	sum
/n/ as in net	nose	money	sun
/ŋ/ as in lung	—	singer	wing x

THE GLIDE, LIQUID, AND LATERAL CONSONANTS

/j/ as in yet	yellow	onion	—
/w/ as in wall	wet	sandwich	—
/r/ as in red	rabbit	carrot	car
/l/ as in led	lamb	pillow	doll

English pure vowelsSound and letters (Spelling)

NO	Sound	letter	Example
1	/ i: /	e,	me, concede
		ee	seed
		ea	eat, Tea
		i.	prestige, , police
		ae	aeon
		ei	receipt
		eo	people
		ey	key
		ie	relieve
		y	city, sunday

2	/ i /	i	bit
		y	gypsum
		e	pretty
		a	image, village
		ei	forfeit
		o	women
		ui	built
		u	busy, minute
		io	ladies, children

/e/	e	set, bed, net
	ea	dead, head, breath
	a	many, Thames, ate
	ai, ay	says, said /
	u	bury
	eo	Geoffrey
	ie	friend
/æ /	a	Sat, hat, marry
	ai	plait, plaid
/ ʌ /	u	Sun, cut, dull
	o	Son, come, one, done, mouth
	ou	country, southern, couple
		enough, young
	oo	blood, flood
	oe	does
/ a: /	a	pass, bath, tomato, branch camouflaze
	ar	part, cart, march
	ear	heart, hearth
	er	clerk, Derby, Sergeant
	al	calm, palm, half
	-oir	reservoir/wa: /
/ ɜ /	o	dock, dog, holiday, sorry, gone
	a	was, what, Swan, want, yacht
	ou	caught, trough, Gloucester
	ow	knowledge
	au	because, sausage, laurel, Austria, Carniflower

8 /ɔ:/

or	cord, horse, sword, born
aw	saw, lawn, jaw, yawn
ou	ought, bought,
au	daughter, fault, cause
ore	before, more
oor	door, floor
oar	oar, board
our	court, four
oa	broad
u	sure /ʃʊə /, /ʃɔə/, /ʃɔ:/ /ʃə /

/v/

/u/ D Jones

u	put, full, sugar, cushion, butcher
o	woman, wolf, boson
oo	good, book, wood, wool, boot
ou	could, should, would, cooler
or	worcaster, worsted

10 /u:/

oo	food, soon, moon, spoon, loose
o	do, who, move, lose
ou	group, soup, wound(n), through
u	rude, June, Susan, use
ew	chew, brew, screw,
ui	juice, gluice
oe	shoe
ue	blue, clue,
wo	two

/ə:/ /ɜ:/

ir	bird, first, girl
yr	myrtle
er	her, serve,
err	err, terror
ur	burn, church, churn, nurse
urr	purr
w+or	word, world, work, worse
our	journey, courtesy, scourge
lo	colonel /'Kɜ:nəl/

/ ə /

i	possible
e	gentlemen
a	woman
o	oblige
u	suppose
ar	particular
er	mother
or	doctor
ou	famous
our	colour
ure	figure

Example to show the vagaries of English spelling:

One single sound can be represented through different spelling in the written form. Take for example the sound /ʃ/

shoe sure issue special mission confusion suspicion
conscious association chivalry fuchsia shawl schist

An example to show how the same spelling can be used to represent different sounds

/k/ charisma chameleon chemical
 /tʃ/ chegue chess church check chease
 /ʃ/ chemise chauffeur chaperon chamois chivalry

Please remember when you learn an English word its spelling has got nothing to do with its pronunciation. In other words English words are not pronounced as they are written.

English Diphthong

Sound	letter	Example
/eɪ/	a	ape, late, make, lady, waste
	i	sail, mail, vail, aim
	ay	clay, day, hay, may, say
	ey	they, whey
	ei	eight, veil, weigh, vein
	ea	great, steak, break
	au	gauge,
	ao	gaol
	alf	halfpenny
/aɪ/	i	time, write, bite, climb
	y	cry, dry, by
	igh	high, light, fight, might
	eigh	height
/ɔɪ/	oi	noise, voice, boil, point
	oy	boy, toy, coy
	uoy	buoy
/əv/	o	se, old, house, both, folk,
	oa	oak, road, foal, toast, soap
	ol	tol, dol, sloe, fol, hol
	ou	soul, though, shoulder,
	ow	know, blow
/eə/	are	care, rare, share, mare
	air	air, fair, pair, chair
	ear	bear, pear, wear, tear (v)
/və /	oor	poor, moor
	ure	pure, endure, cure, sure
	ur	curious, spurious, during, security
	ewer	sewer
	our	tour, dour, gourd
	ewe	jewell
	ue	fluent
	ua	truant

PRONUNCIATION

A book cannot pronounce sounds for you. If you are not in a class, ask some English-speaking person to pronounce the words in this section of the book to you. Listen carefully in each word to the sound he makes where the letters are in heavy type. Then say the words yourself, and ask your English-speaking friend to help you with your pronunciation.

1. *English Consonant Sounds*

- [θ] think — thank — method — mathematics — cloth — path
- [ð] this — they — either — father — breathe — bathe — smooth
- [f] fine — feet — define — stiffen — staff — puff — safe — deaf
— phantom — telephone — graph — cough — tough — off
- [v] very — vine — heavy — every — leave — save — give — of
- [k] king — cat — broken — bacon — ticket — took — back —
strike — picnic — quite — equal — grotesque — chord —
chaos — choir — architect — character — stomach — ache
- [g] go — get — again — beggar — bag — dog — guard — guest
— plague — vague
- [p] pull — past — rapid — happy — tap — hope — ripe
- [b] bell — bit — cabin — hobby — rub — robe
- [t] to — ten — later — bitten — hat — note — puffed — looked
— hoped — passed — pushed — watched
- [d] dim — do — wooden — bidder — sad — made — breathed —
moved — begged — robbed — raised — changed
- [s] so — sit — basin — lesson — bus — pass — loose — cinema
— cell — recent — icing — pace — rice — psychology —
scene — science — scent — safes — picks — jumps — hits
- [z] zoo — zeal — lazy — razor — raisin — easy — buzz — gaze
— rise — bathes — gives — dogs — robes — beds —
rooms — hens — calls — sings — eyes — sees — scissors
— possess
- [ʃ] she — shop — washer — pushing — brush — wish — sugar
— sure — assure — pressure — nation — action — friction
— ocean — delicious — fission — mission — passion —
machine — conscience — conscious — gracious
- [ʒ] pleasure — measure — treasure — occasion — vision —
confusion — provision

PRONUNCIATION

cheap — chair — butcher — watching — catch — such —
 much
 jump — joy — enjoy — reject — general — germ — digest —
 edging — change — charge — badge — hedge
 hot — head — happy — ahead — reheat — who — whole
 we — west — water — away — award — underwent —
 what — why — quick — queen — request — suave —
 persuade
 you — yet — yes — ^Λuse — ^Λunion — ^Λuniversity — ^Λusual —
 am^Λuse — t^Λube — end^Λure — f^Λew — n^Λew — view —
 beauty — onion — opinion — million
 me — man — amount — hammer — come — him — calm
 — thumb — autumn
 no — nice — many — annoy — pin — line — know — knit
 — knife — pneumatic — pneumonia — gnash — gnaw —
 sign
 wing — sang — ring — wringer — singer — bringing —
 think — thank — bank — angle — finger — hunger —
 tongue
 look — like — alarm — pulley — pull — travel — hole —
 people — little — bottle
 run — red — very — married — wrong — write — wrist —
 wrap

REMEMBER THIS ALWAYS

. If your vowels are imperfect, you can still be understood

Ex: C--ld y-- p--ss m- th- s-lt pl--s- (Vowels are left out)

C--ld y-- p--ss m- - p-- - -f str-ng pl--s- (")

You can guess the missing vowels and get the sentence here.

See what happens if all consonants are missing

Ex: -ou-- -ou -a-- -e --e -a-- --ea-e

-ou-- -ou -a-- -e - -|o-o e- ---|-- --o, -e

You can't even guess what the sentence could be because it doesn't make any sense.

GROUP 1

VOICED CONSONANT SOUNDS

love	[v]	loves	[vz]
rub	[b]	rub	[bz]
beg	[g]	begs	[gz]
hold	[d]	holds	[dz]
loathe	[ð]	loathes	[ðz]
sing	[ŋ]	sings	[ŋz]
hem	[m]	hems	[mz]
plan	[n]	plans	[nz]
fill	[l]	fills	[lz]

If the infinitive ends with one of these VOICED consonant sounds, the '-s' or '-es' is pronounced [z].

ALL VOWEL SOUNDS are VOICED. If the infinitive ends with a vowel sound, the '-s' or '-es' is pronounced [z], e.g.

wear	[ɛə]	wears	[ɛəz]
play	[ei]	plays	[eiz]
show	[ou]	shows	[ouz]
see	[i:]	sees	[i:z]

NOTE that 'r', 'y', 'w' are silent and are not pronounced separately as consonant sounds.

GROUP 2

VOICELESS CONSONANT SOUNDS

cough	[f]	coughs	[fs]
drop	[p]	drops	[ps]
look	[k]	looks	[ks]
let	[t]	lets	[ts]
bath	[θ]	baths	[θs]

If the infinitive ends with one of these VOICELESS consonant sounds, the '-s' or '-es' is pronounced [s].

GROUP 3

VOICED AND VOICELESS CONSONANT SOUNDS

lose	[z]	loses	[ziz]
pass	[s]	passes	[siz]
dodge	[dʒ]	dodges	[dʒiz]
reach	[tʃ]	reaches	[tʃiz]
wash	[ʃ]	washes	[ʃiz]

If the infinitive ends with one of these consonant sounds, the '-es' is pronounced [iz].

Here are some examples. Practise your pronunciation.

<i>Group 1</i>	<i>Group 2</i>	<i>Group 3</i>
[vz] She moves.	[ks] He takes.	[siz] She passes.
[eəz] He wears.	[ps] It jumps.	[tʃiz] It reaches.
[nz] He listens.	[ts] She wants.	[ksiz] She mixes.
[eiz] She stays.	[fs] He laughs.	[ziz] he loses.
[ouz] It knows.	[ks] She looks.	[tʃiz] He touches.
[dz] He reads.	[ks] He drinks.	[tʃiz] She teaches.
[ouz] She goes.	[ps] It stops.	[dʒiz] It dodges.
[aiz] He buys.	[ps] It sleeps.	[ziz] It pleases.
[dz] She holds.	[ts] He lets.	[ʃiz] He washes.
[ðz] It loathes.	[θs] He baths.	[ʃiz] He pushes.

It is important to learn the sounds which require [z], [s], or [iz]. Many learners of English do not know the difference between Group 1 and Group 2. They pronounce every 's' in the same way. They usually pronounce all the '-s' endings as [s]. You can see from Group 2 that there are only five consonant sounds that take [s] after them. All the vowel sounds and nine consonant sounds take [z] after them. You will see that [z] is much more frequent than [s] at the end of the 'he/she/it' form of the Simple Present.

Spelling does not help you very much with your pronunciation of the '-s' or '-es' ending of the Simple Present. All '-es' endings are not pronounced [iz], because the pronunciation of '-es' depends on the last SOUND of the infinitive, e.g.

take	[k]	takes	[ks]
loathe	[ð]	loathes	[ðz]
move	[v]	moves	[vz]
hope	[p]	hopes	[ps]
go	[ou]	goes	[ouz]

We pronounce '-es' as [iz] only after [z], [s], [dʒ], [tʃ], and [ʃ] as in Group 3, e.g.

catch	[tʃ]	catches	[tʃiz]
please	[z]	pleases	[ziz]
miss	[s]	misses	[siz]
dodge	[dʒ]	dodges	[dʒiz]
push	[ʃ]	pushes	[ʃiz]

SPOKEN ENGLISH

Though most Indian languages have nearly phonetic spelling, English is an unphonetic language. It has no one to one correspondence between letters, of the alphabet and the sounds they represent. Though there are 26 letters in the English alphabet, they represent 44 different sounds. For eg. The letter 'g' in words game, ghost, bag, and log is pronounced as /g/ but in words like gem, genetics, geography, page and cage it is pronounced as /dʒ/. Similarly the letter 'u' is pronounced as /ʌ/ in 'but', 'cut' and 'rustle' but as /u/ in 'put' and /e/ in 'bury'.

This conflict between spelling and pronunciation, between symbol and sound poses problems for learners of English. Hence a lot of practice is needed in pronouncing sounds correctly. Reading aloud is an important technique for developing good spoken English. Teacher's reading aloud provides necessary exposure to correct pronunciation, stress and intonation and acts as a model for learners to imitate. Hence it is important for teachers to read well. Training students to read well helps to improve their pronunciation as well as develop an awareness to sense groups and stress and intonation.

Objective - SPEAKING

1. To enable teachers to understand that spelling and pronunciation do not concur
2. Help them to pronounce all the 44 sounds as accurately as possible
3. Get them to identify minimal pairs and practice them
4. Help them to identify minimal pairs from the VIII Std. text

WRITING

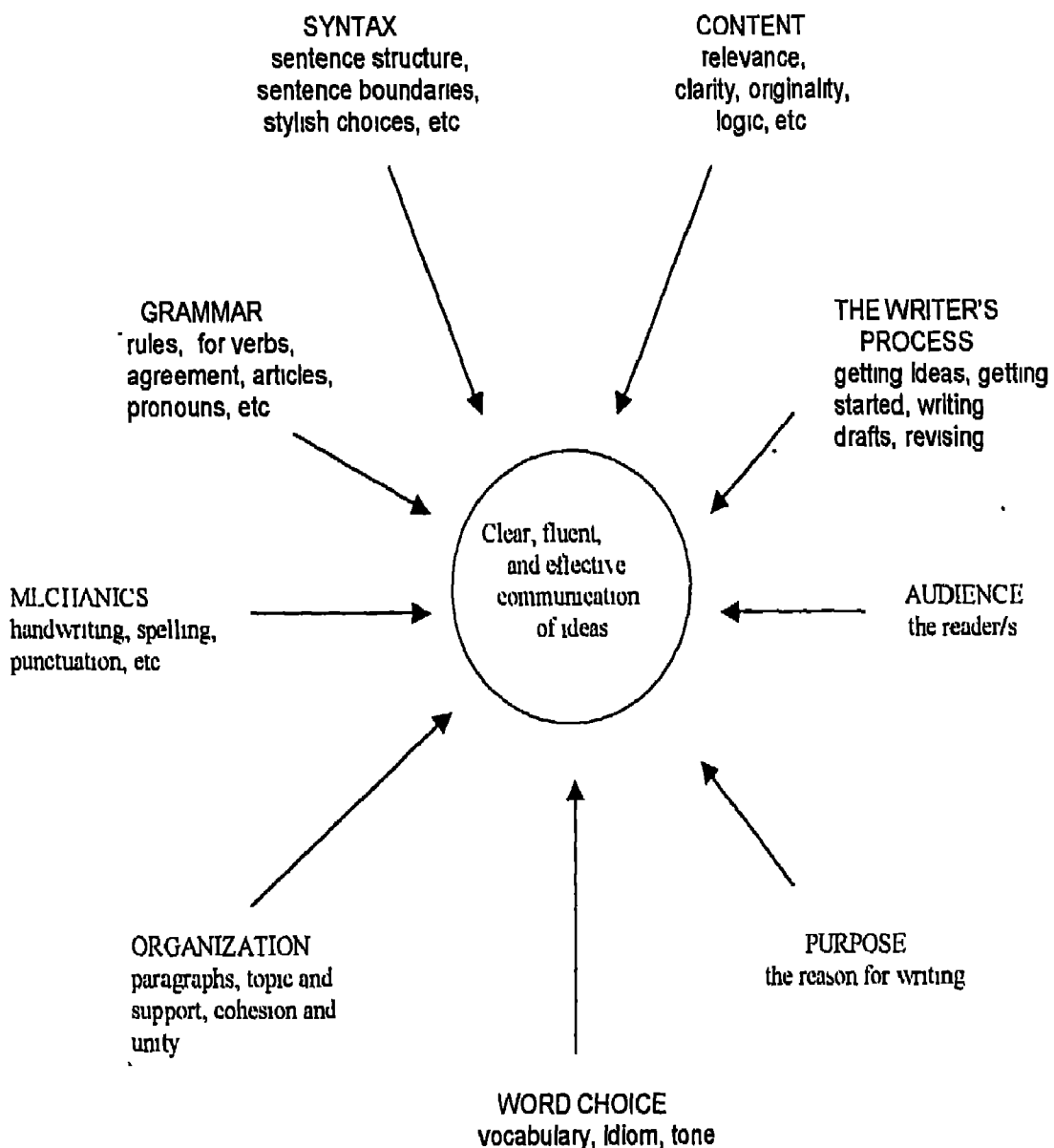
Among the productive skills, writing is more complex than speech. An important aspect of speech is that immediate feedback helps us monitor what we say. Looking at the expression on the listener's face we change the track of our speech. This kind of monitoring is not possible in writing as there is no face to face interaction between reader and writer. A writer unlike a speaker has to compensate the absence of external contextual elements by deliberate explanatory details.

Writing is more organised and systematic than speech. Speech allows incomplete sentences, jumping from one incomplete sentence to the next and then back to the first idea and so on. But writing does not permit this haphazard, disorganized form. One has to be precise and well organised and clear in what one writes. Cohesive linguistic devices are more explicit in writing i.e., in addition to functional and thematic links, grammatical links are also very important.

Writing is not just transcribing language into written symbols. It is a thinking process. White and Arndt (1991-3) say, "It is a form of problem solving which involves such processes as generating ideas, discovering a 'voice' with which to write, planning, goal setting, monitoring and evaluating what is going to be written as well as what has been written and searching for language with which to express exact meaning".

For a long time writing instruction meant copying good models, practicing and correction by the teacher. This was the product oriented instruction as the focus was on the written product of the students rather than the processes by which they produced them. Now the focus has shifted from product to writing process. I.e., the teacher guides the students while writing. Ann Raimes gives a clear picture of what a good piece of writing contains in the following diagram.

Producing a Piece of Writing



In other words, producing a good piece of writing involves:-

- deciding what to say
- thinking
- thinking who we are writing for
- thinking about our aim in writing this particular piece
- thinking of how to set it out on the page
- deciding on the order in which we put our ideas
- deciding about punctuation marks
- spelling, words conveying meaning, finding the best word
- writing grammatical sentences.
- Checking whether they read well
- Reading, keeping other readers in mind
- Changing the write up by adding or removing parts

Ann Raimes advocates prewriting activities like discussion, brainstorming, listing and reading. According to Raimes in this process approach students redraft, exchange ideas, go through their own work, think and move on to new ideas.

Much research has been done in the field of writing by writers like Raimes (85) Shaughnessy (77), Silva (90) and Zamel (83) (87). Zamel (1983 199) stresses the importance of making students actually experience the process of writing and understand that writing is the making of meaning out of chaos. Silva (1990) says teachers should provide a supportive environment in the classroom and encourage students to work collaboratively. Teachers must be facilitators not assessors.

SPOKEN ENGLISH

Pronunciation Problem ?

I take it you already know
Of tough and bough and cough and dough
Others may stumble, but not you
On hiccough, thorough, laugh, and through
Well done, And now you wish, perhaps
To learn of less familiar trap
Beware of heard a dreadful word
That looks like beard and sounds like bird
And dead – its said like bed, not bead
For goodness sake, don't call it deed !
Watch out for treat and great and threat
They rhyme with suite and straight and debt
A moth is not a moth in mother
Nor both in bother, broth in brother
And here is not a match for there,
Nor dear and fear for pear and bear
And then there is dose and rose and lose
Just look them up – and goose and choose
And cork and work and card and ward

And font and front and word and sword
And do and go, then thwart and cart
Come, Come, I've already made a start
A dreadful language ? Man alive,
I'd mastered it when I was five !

Spoken English

THE SOUND OF ENGLISH - CONSONANTS

(With Key Words)

Consonant	Initial	Medial	Final
/ p /	Pin	Spin	Ship
/ b /	Bit	Clubs	Hub
/ t /	Take	Stone	Lit
/ dʒ /	Day	Heads	Lid
/ k /	Key	Sky	Talk
/ g /	Go	Eggs	Bag
/ tʃ /	Chain	Tetched	Teach
/ dʒ /	Jail	Barged	Larg
/ m /	Main	Small	Sum
/ n /	Nail	Snake	Shine
/ ŋ /	-	Things	Sing
/ l /	Late	Slate	Tell
/ f /	Fan	Sphere	Half
/ v /	View	Thieves	Live
/ θ /	Thin	Months	Bath
/ ð /	Then	Bathes	Clothes
/ s /	Sit	Taste	Loss
/ z /	Zoo	Buzzed	Lose
/ ʃ /	Ship	Wished	Fresh
/ ʒ /	-	Division	Rouge
/ h /	Hat	Behave	-
/ r /	Run	Shrewd	-
/ w /	Win	Swim	-
/ j /	Yes	Tune	-

Vowel	Initial	Medial	Final
MONOPHTHONGS:			
1 / i:/	East	Seen	Key
2 / ɪ /	It	Hit	Duty
3 / e /	End	Lend	--
4 / æ /	And	Land	--
5 / a:/	Arm	Harm	Car
6 / ɒ /	On	Cot	--
7. / ɔ:/	All	Caught	Saw

8 / u /	--	Put	--
9 / u: /	Ooze	Choose	Shoe
10 / ʌ /	Up	Cup	--
11 / ə /	Earn	Turn	Sir
12 / ə /	Ago	Police	Tailor

DIPHTHONGS:

1 / eɪ /	Eight	Straight	Stray
2 / əʊ /	Oak	Joke	Slow
3 / aɪ /	Ice	Mice	My
4 / aʊ /	Out	Shout	How
5 / ɔɪ /	Oil	Boil	Boy
6 / lə /	Ear	Beard	Clear
7 / eə /	Air	Share	Care
8 / ʊ ə /	--	Cure	Poor

Of the 12 monophthongs, 7 are short, and 5 long

All vowels and diphthongs are voiced sounds

Practice Material

Vowels and Diphthongs

1 Listen and Repeat

2 Transcribe the list of words using the IPA symbols

/ a /	/ ɜ /	/ eɪ /	/ e /	/ aɪ /	/ a /
Barn	burn	fade	fed	life	laugh
Are	err	sale	sell	tight	tart
Fast	first	laid	led	pike	park
Cart	curt	paste	pest	hide	hard
Lark	lurk	late	let	spike	spark
/ ɔɪ /	/ ɔ /	/ ə /	/ ɔ /	/ lə /	/ ɪ /
Toy	tore	phone	fawn	fear	fee
Coin	corn	boat	bought	beard	bead
Boil	ball	code	cord	mere	me
Boy	bore	stoke	stork	steered	steed
Foil	fall	bowl	ball	peer	pea

/eə/	/eɪ/	/eə/	/ɪə/	/ʊə/	/ɔː/
Dare	day	fare	fear	poor	paw
Stared	stayed	pair	pier	sure	shore
Pairs	pays	stare	steer	moor	more
Hair	hay	air	ear	dour	door
Mare	may	snare	sneer	tour	tore

WRITING

Jumbled Words

1 Arrange the following words into meaningful sentences leading to a Story

- 1 Hameed old getting was
- 2 wanted He to know the was who intelligent most his children among
- 3 some Hameed gave money his three to so children asked and them get to that something fill would the room
- 4 The child first bought and hay filled the with room it.
- 5 second the child cotton and the bought room filled with it
- 6 third small child The bought a candle
- 7 She the candle in room the lit
- 8 The filled room with was light

WRITING

Similar words frequently confused

Many errors are caused by confusion of such words as *effect* and *affect*. It is useless to spell *principal* correct if the word that belongs in your sentence is *principle*. The following list distinguishes briefly between words that are frequently confused

Accept	Receive
Except	Aside from
Access	Admittance
Excess	Greater amount
Advice	Noun
Advise	Verb
Affect	To influence (verb)
Effect	Result (noun)
Effect	To bring about (verb)
Aisle	In church
Isle	Island

All ready Already	Prepared Previously
Allusion Illusion	Reference Misconception
Altar Alter	Shrine Change
Angel Angle	Celestial being Corner
Ascent Assent	Climbing Agreement
Bearth Birth	Bed Being born
Boarder Border	On who boards Edge
Breath Breathe	Noun Verb
Capital Capitol	City Building
Choose Chose	Present Past
Clothes Cloths	Garments Kinds of cloth
Coarse Course	Not fine Path
Complement Compliment	To complete To praise
Conscience Conscious	Sense of right and wrong Aware
Corps Corpse	Group Dead body
Costume Custom	Dress Social convention
Council	Governmental group

Counsel	Advise
dairy	milk supplier
diary	daily record
Desert	Wasteland
Dessert	Food
Device	Noun
Devise	Verb
Dual	Two fold
Duel	Fight
Formally	In a formal manner
Formerly	Previously
Forth	Forward
Fourth	4 th
Ingenious	Clever
Ingenuous	Frank
Its	Of it
It's	It is
Later	Subsequently
Latter	Second of two
Lead	Metal
Led	Past tense of the verb lead
Loose	Not tight
Lose	Misplace
Peace	Not war
Piece	A portion
Personal	Private
Personnel	Work force
Principal	Most important
Principle	Basic doctrine
Quiet	Still
Quite	Entirely
Respectfully	With respect
Respectively	In the order named

Shone
Shown

From shine
From show

Stationary
Stationery

Not moving
Writing supplies

Than
Then

Companison
At that time

Their
There
They're
To
Too
two

Possessive
In that place
They are
As in go to bed
As in too bad, me too
The number 2

Weather
Whether

Rain ork shine
Which of two

Who's
Whose

Who is
Possessive

You're
Your

You are
possessive

WRITING

Re-arrange the following sentences in the right order to make a meaningful paragraph.

- a. Braille was accidentally blinded when he was 3 years old.
- b. Louis Braille was born in France in 1809.
- c. At the age of ten, he was sent to a special school for the blind.
- d. In his early twenties, he was successful & invented the Braille system, which is still in use today.
- e. He did not think much of the methods of teaching the blind which were used at the special school.
- f. Braille decided to see if he could invent a system similar to night writing to enable the blind to read.
- g. He met a Captain Barbier who told him about a night writing system which soldiers could use to read in the dark.

WRITING

WORK SHEET – 2

RELATING IDEAS : LINKING WORDS AND PHRASES

In groups, discuss the linking words and phrases underlined in paragraph 1 of the letter below. What do they mean? How do they link ideas? How are they punctuated?

Then, working individually or in groups, choose the best word or phrase for each blank in paragraph 2 and 3 from the list below the letter.

Dear Reynalds,

Do you remember I told you I was trying to get a part-time job as a waiter at a Japanese restaurant? (1) Well, I finally managed to get one! Of course, I haven't been working there long, (2) but I can already tell it's a wonderful place to work. All the staff, even the maitre d; are very friendly. (3) Besides, the pay is pretty good, (4) and they let us eat whatever we want after work. (5) For instance, last night I had a big platter of sushi at 11.00!

I work only as a dinner waiter (6) I go to classes during the day. My main job is to take orders from customers, give the orders to the cooks, (7) take the food to the customer. I often have to describe the different Japanese dishes, (8) sashimi, sykiyaki, or teriyaki. Sometimes Japanese customers speak to me in Japanese, expecting me to know the language. (9), I know only a few words of Japanese, (10) I get a little embarrassed. You know my grandparents immigrated from Japan, (11) my parents never taught me Japanese. I'm pretty well over my embarrassment now, (12) , and am taking advantage of learning more of the language on the job. I find the job very interesting (13) I get to meet so many different people.

(14) that's my news. What about you?

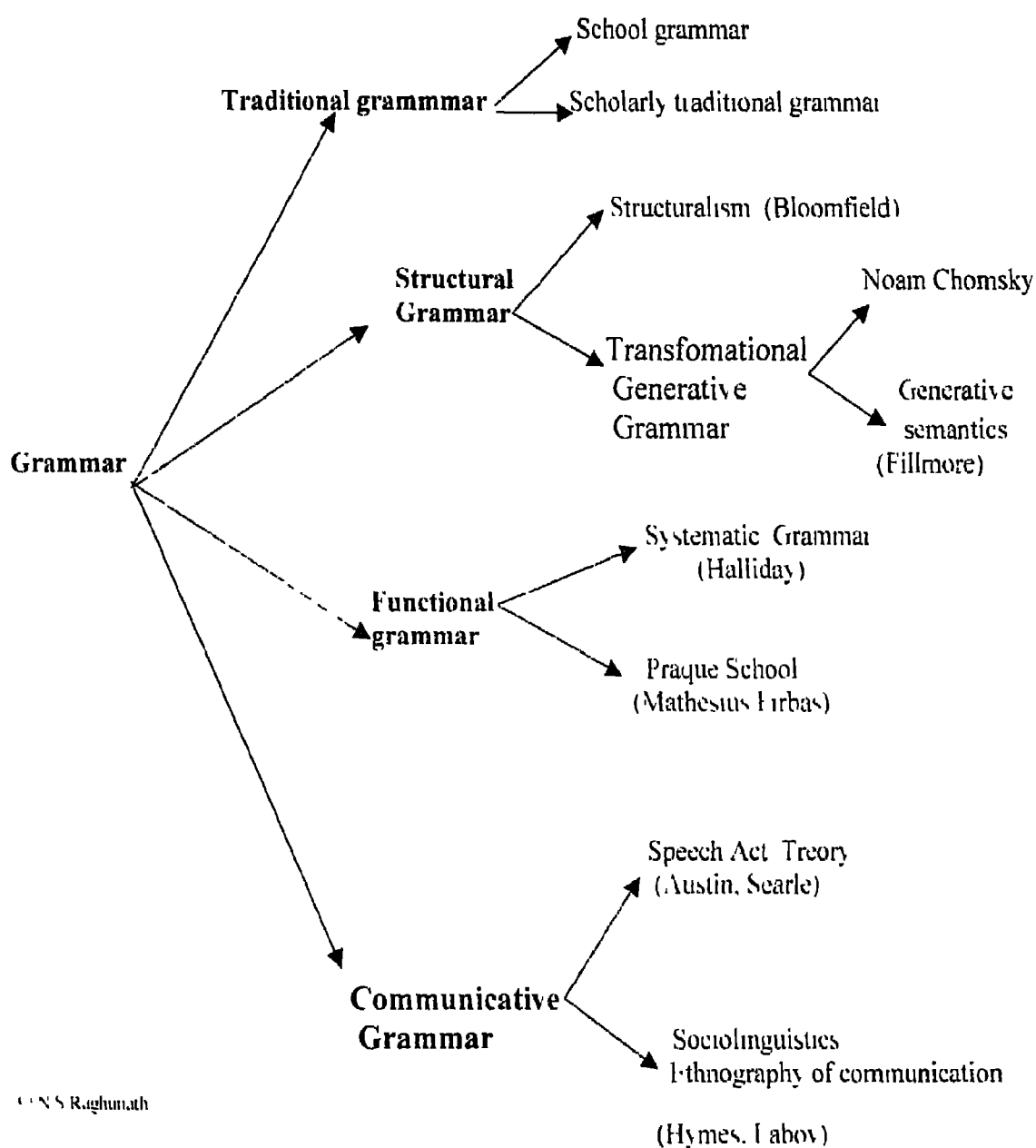
Drop me a line when you have time. Regards to your-family.

As always

Ken

6. a. because
 b. by the way
 c. however
7. a. and
 b. so
 c. for instance
8. a. besides
 b. however
 c. such as
9. a. then
 b. however
 c. although
10. a. then
 b. so
 c. because
11. a. because
 b. besides
 c. but
12. a. well
 b. though
 c. and
13. a. why
 b. because
 c. then
14. a. well
 b. for example
 c. but

Diagram shows various theories/Schools of linguistic description which have influenced language pedagogy



THE MEANING OF THE MODAL AUXILIARIES

can/could, may/might, shall/should, will/would, must, ought to, used to.

can/could

can

1. ability He can speak but he can't write it
 = be able to very well.
 = be capable of ('He is able to speak ...'
 = know how to 'He is capable of speaking ...'
 'He knows how to speak ...')
-

2. Permission

- = be allowed to Can I smoke in here ?
 = be permitted to May
 ('Am I allowed to smoke in here ?'
 'Am I permitted to smoke in here ?')
-

3. Possibility

- Anybody can make mistakes
 = it is possible ('It is possible to commit mistake for
 that/to anybody')
 can theoretical The road can be blocked
 possibility ('It is possible to block the road')

Use 'may' in the same sentences and see how the meaning changes.

- (may = factual The road may be blocked
 possibility) ('It is possible that the road is
 blocked')

could

1. Ability I never could play the santur
2. Permission Could I smoke in here ?
3. Possibility Could that be my train ? (theoretical)
 The road could be blocked (factual)

In a sentence like the one mentioned below ability can bring in willingness (especially in spoken English).

Can

 you do me a favour ?

Could

may

1. Permission You may borrow my car if you like

 = be allowed to mustn't be
 = be permitted to You are not allowed to borrow
 may not be my car

a. May (='possibility') is replaced by can in questions, and normally also in negative sentences. For example, look at the following sentence:

- He may be right - Can he be right ?

 - He can't be right

 In the two sentences above, may is replaced by can. If may is used, it will change the meaning drastically.

Note the change in meaning again:

He may not come (='It is possible that he will not come')

He can't come (='It is not possible for him to come')

There is a rare use of may: for example, to express wish, normally in positive sentences.

 May the best team win!

 May he never set foot in this house!

2. Possibility

He may never succeed

(='It is possible that he will never
succeed')

Use 'can' in the same sentence and see how the meaning changes.

He can never succeed

('It is not possible for him to succeed')

Please refer to 'page 1 may - factual possibility

can - theoretical possibility

might

1. Possibility

What you might say be true

2. Permission

Might I smoke in here ? (rare use)

shall/should

shall

1. Intention on the part of the speaker, only in 1st person

I shan't be long
We shall overcome
We shall let you know our
decision

2. Willingness on the part of the speaker in 2nd and 3rd person. Restricted use.

You shall do exactly as you wish
He shall get his money

3. Insistance. Restricted use.

You shall do as I say
He shall be deported

Legal Use

The management shall maintain the employees till the factory reopens.

Of these three meanings it is only the one of intention that is widely used today -

4. shall is used in first person singular of question. It can't be replaced by will.

Shall I get you a book ? - 'will' can't be used here

What shall we eat ? - 'Will' is also used here but 'shall' is more common

What will I do ?
What will I take ?
How will I get there ?

- 'will' doesn't express future choice or willingness in these three sentences; it expresses helplessness and perplexity.

A similar meaning is also conveyed by the following sentence

What are we going to do ?

should

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Obligation | You should do as he says |
| 2. Logical necessity
(=ought to) | The team should arrive by now |
| 3. Hypothetical use
(1st person only) | should
We love to go abroad
would if we had the chance |
| 4. Tentative condition
in conditional clause | If you should change your mind, please let us know |

WILL/WOULD Will

I Willingness ('weak volition')	1. He'll help you if you ask him. 2. Will you have another cup of coffee? 3. Will you please open the window?
II 'Intention' ('inter mediate volition')	1. I'll go home as soon as I can. 2. We won't be long
III Insistence ('strong volition') Use 'shall'	1. He will do it, whatever you say (He insists on doing it.....) 2. He shall do it' whatever you say (I insists on his doing it)
IV Logical necessity and habitual present.	(a) Specific prediction: will 'The game must be finished by now should (b) Timeless prediction Oil will float on water floats (c) Habitual prediction He'll (always) talk for hours if you give him the chance.

Would

I Willingness ('weak volition')	Would you excuse me?
II Insistence ('strong volition')	It's your own fault; you would carry the message
III Characteristic activity	Every morning he would go for a long Walk Swamy would make a mess of it (It was typical of him)
IV Hypothetical meaning	He would drink too much if I didn't Stop him
V Probability	That would be his mother

MODAL AUXILIARIES

Must

1. I must go to the bank to get some money.
2. When you enter the building you must show the guard your pass.
3. Cars mustn't park in front of the college
4. You mustn't open the door before the cake is ready.
5. We mustn't be late, must we?
6. Must we go so soon?
(Indicates that it's necessary that something is done)

1. You must be hungry after your long walk
2. You must be having a lot of problem with English
3. You must be twins
4. You must be Mr Venkatesh – I was told to expect you.
5. The Minister must have read the CBI report.
(Indicates that one thinks something is likely or logical)

1. You must read this book – it's so wonderful.
2. It's from my employer, if you must know it
3. Must you make so much of fuss for such a simple problem?
(Insisting that somebody does something)

1. He must have known what she wanted
(i e surely he knew)
2. Passengers mustn't smoke until the signs have been switched off
3. You must be home by 11 o' clock
4. I must wash the car tomorrow
5. Passengers must not smoke until the signals go off
(Indicates the speaker expects or orders some thing)
6. Must you do that?
(Is it necessary to do that? Is there any compulsion to do that?)

Dare.

1. Don't you dare touch that money.
2. I'll tell your mother about that girl. Don't you dare!
(You mustn't or I'll be angry)
1. I dare you to tell your mother!
2. Someone dared me to drive at 100 mph
3. Slap him! I dare you!
(challenge)

1. How dare you took my car without even asking! (indignation)
2. I dare say you're a German, you still need evidence to prove that.
(I expect that, it's possible that)
3. He only entered the competition for a dare.
(because he was challenged to do it)

Have to

1. I have to collect children from the school.
2. Drivers have to wear uniform.
3. You have to pay in advance for booking the taxi.
(situation makes it necessary)

Need

1. You need to finish it. (obligation)
2. He asked whether he need send a deposit. (is it necessary)
3. If she wants anything, she need only ask. (necessary }
4. I need hardly tell you that the journey is dangerous. (You must already know)
5. Nobody need be afraid of catching the disease (not necessar)
6. You needn't have hurried.
7. You needn't have come in person (action in the past was unnecessary)
8. Need you have paid so much? (was it,
9. Need we really leave so early. Is it necessary?)

1. You needn't go home yet.
2. You don't need to go home yet (both mean the same)

1. You needn't have brought this (not necessary)

Ought to

(this carries a moral sense)

1. You ought not to have gone to that liquor shop
2. You ought to have paid the fees
3. She ought to return that book to her.

LIST OF BOOKS ON ELT

- 1 An Outline of English Phonetics, Daniel Jones Kalyani Publishers,
New Delhi(1972)
- 2 English Pronouncing Dictionary, Daniel Jones, London (1964)
- 3 An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English, A C Gimson London
- 4 An Intermediate English Practice Book, S Pit Corder
- 5 Grammar, Frank Palmer, Penguin
- 6 A Practical English Grammar, A J Thomson and A V Martinet
- 7 Grammar Practice Activities, Penny Ur, CUP
- 8 Cambridge Guide to Teaching English, for Speakers of Other
Languages, Ed Ronald Carter David Nauman CUP (2001)
- 9 The Structure of English C C Fries
- 10 A Grammar of Contemporary English Randolph Quirk Sidney Baulm,
Geoffery Lee
11. A Rapid survey of English Grammar Pranishkash

Adverb (YET)

- 1) I haven't got the information from him yet (used with present perfect of past perfect tense)**
- 3) I haven't seen him yet (till now)**
- 4) India is not yet sure if it could trust Pakistan (till now)**
- 5) I 'm not sure if he is ready yet (at this time)**
- 6) I doubt if he has ready yet (till this time)**
- 7) Don't go yet (now or as soon as this)**
- 8) We don't need to start yet (now or as soon as this)**
- 9) They won't return for at least two hours yet (from now)**
- 10) We are yet to decide what action to take (at this point in time)**
- 11) Osama may yet surprise us (still)**
- 12) We may win yet (at sometime in the future)**
- 13) The most comprehensive study yet on Ravi Shankar (written till date)**
- 14) The WTC is the highest building yet in New York. (till date)**

- 15) Yet another example of brutal terrorism (additional evidence)
- 16) As yet little is known about the mental health of Osama Bin Laden (till date)
- 17) Yet again we have seen the hasty decision made by the Karnataka Government (repeated example)
- 18) As yet unpublished report on small pox (till now)

Trends In Language : A Historical Survey

Prepared by : P N Srinat

Synopsis

The concept of language learning has undergone many changes over the years. In the beginning, learning a language meant not very much different from learning other subjects; primarily, it was either learning literature, or else learning about the language, that is, the rules of grammar. This grammar-translation approach advocated training in Reading and Writing, but ignored speaking altogether. Soon, there was a reaction to this approach, with the rise of behaviourism in Psychology. Language learning, it was argued, was mainly habit formation. By getting the learners to drill a few selected structure and words, language could be learnt as a habit. Obviously, errors were considered to be detrimental to language learning.

Again, after a few decades, trends changed in favour of learning the rules of language. The role of acquisition of rules by the learner was emphasized by Psycholinguists like Chomsky. He maintained that learning a language was primarily hypothesis formation; and every human being was endowed with this 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD). The fact that a child is capable of generating sentences, which it has never heard before, prompted these Psycholinguists to argue that the learner is capable of internalizing the rules and generate language when sufficient exposure is provided.

By about 1980, D A Wilkins, a member of Council of Europe Organizations developed 'Categories of communicative functions' and 'Semantico-Grammatical Categories'. This helped in the emergence of functional – notional approach, which focuses on what we 'do' (function) and what we 'convey' (notion) through the language.

Prof. Widdowson has gone a step ahead and pointed out that language does not stop at the sentence level, but deals with the whole stretches of discourse. Meaning, context, use and situation are given more prominence than mere structure and rule.

'Communicational Teaching' evolved by Dr Prabhu emphasizes 'English through Communication' rather than 'English for Communication'. Language acquisition, says Prabhu, is optimum when the learner is confronted with a genuine problem solving situation. In negotiating the problem, it is believed that language is learnt incidentally and effectively, too.

Let us remind ourselves that these trends are neither mutually exclusive nor linear. The wisdom lies in adopting an eclectic approach or a combination of approaches. Considering the unpredictable variables that influence the actual classroom teaching, the teacher would do well to choose the most suitable methodology or methodologies appropriate to her/his class.

Activity Sheet – 1
Views on Teaching Expectation/Views

Activity Card – 1
Social Expectation/Views

Parents and Public

Administrator

Student

Teacher

a) What are their expectations and views on learning?
b) How do they influence the system of instruction?

Activity Card – 2
English Teaching Scenario in Schools

Textbook
relevance

Classroom -
What happens?

Examination
What does it test?

How do the above factors influence learning?

c) Methodology – 3

Activity Sheet – 3

Sharpening Class Management Skills

Choose your tutor/partner to be present when you teach a lesson.

Ask her/him to make brief notes using these questions as a guide

- | | |
|--|---|
| A Beginning | Is there a good start to the lesson?
Does the work begin quickly? |
| B Questions and Explanation | Are these clear? Are there ambiguities or uncertainties? Is the teacher audible? |
| C Appropriateness | Is the work appropriate for the group?
Does it engage children's attention? |
| D. Transition | When there is a transition from one activity to another, is it done smoothly? |
| E Vigilance | Is the teacher aware of what is going on in the Class? Does the teacher monitor the class well? |
| F Response to pupils' Work and behaviour | Does the teacher use praise, reprimand criticism appropriately? |
| G Manner | Do you think the teacher's attitude to children right, or is it too severe or permissive? |
| H Ending | Does the lesson end properly? Is there any summary, if necessary or review of progress? |
| I Extended Activity | Are the children encouraged to produce/ do more than what is given by the teacher? |

The tutor could add any other comments she thinks proper.

Methodology
Classroom Management
Activity Sheet – 2

Step 1 : What makes one an effective teacher?

Discuss in groups along the following dimensions

Step A : Content . . . ?

Knowledge . . . Language .. Substance of language . .

Step B : Attitudes

a) towards the subject

b) towards Teacher-Pupil relationship?

c) ? ? ? ?

Step C: Performance (Note what the teacher should do in each stage)

i) Before class

ii) During class

iii) After class

Methodology – 3
Classroom Management

Activity 1

Step 1 : Think of a teacher who taught you, in whose lessons you feel that you learned a lot and liked being in the class. Let us call the teacher A. Think of another teacher who taught you, in whose lessons you feel you learned a little and did not like being in the class. Let us call her Teacher B. Picture each teacher in your memory. Write a brief descriptive paragraph.

Teacher A Teacher B

Memorable events

Step 2: Assemble a list of opposites from your description and memories of the two teachers. It is not essential that Teacher A and Teacher B be the exact opposite on any dimension.

Eg	1	Strict	Permissive
	2	Authoritarian	Democratic
	3	Reserved	Social

Step 3: Now write your own pairs of opposites in the grid below and rate the ideal teacher by encircling the appropriate number on the seven point scale.

1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Step 4 : Now, ask yourself these questions. Discuss them in the class.

- i) How does a good teacher differ from others ?
- ii) How does my estimation of a good teacher compare with others in the group?
- iii) Do I satisfy these demands myself? If not, how can I improve?

Methodology
Module – 2, Handout – 1

Time: 15 minutes

REFLECTION ON THE TEXTBOOKS

Read the following statements You may agree or disagree with them
Discuss them with your partner.

- 1 The textbook is the only means through which the teacher can try to realize the objectives defined in the syllabus
 - 2 The textbook should guide the teacher about the underlying approach, technique and strategies of teaching.
 3. Content or the Reading Passage is the most important thing that the teacher is required to emphasize in the text ~
 - 4 The textbook/the course book should provide ample opportunities for the learner to develop all the skills.
 - 5 Lessons/passages/stories have got to be built around some vocabulary items and a few structures.
 - 6 The text must be potential enough to generate communicative language exercises and tasks
 - 7 In reality what the teachers teach and what the learners learn are determined more by the demands of examination than what the textbook contains
- ◆

Methodology

Module – 2 Handout – 2

Time. 30 minutes

A close look at the X Std. Text

Work in groups. Read relevant parts in the X standard text, makes notes individually. Compare your notes in the group. Collate and consolidate your views and write them down against each item. Present your group's view in the class.

- 1 Name of the book
- 2 Standard
- 3 Components of the Package
- 4 Assumptions made about the principles/techniques/ approaches etc as spelt (use only short phrases or words)
 - a) in the foreword/preface
 - b) as addressed to the teacher
 - c) as addressed to the learner
 - d) as addressed to the parent
5. Your remarks

FIGURES OF SPEECH

We sometimes speak of the figurative use of language in poetry. 'Figurative' means language being used in a non-literal way. Most commonly the poet uses either a metaphor or a simile to extend the significance of what he is saying.

METAPHOR is a figure of speech in which one thing is described in terms of another e.g. wafer thin

A **SIMILE** is very nearly the same but, whereas metaphor identifies one thing with another, a simile involves the notion of similarity, using the words 'like' or 'as' (eg. as thin as a rake)

Hamlet's famous soliloquy begins,

To be, or not to be, that is the question
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles
And by opposing end them

The third and fourth lines both employ metaphors. 'outrageous fortune' is described in terms of 'a sea'. The subjects of the metaphors are 'fortune' and 'troubles', the figurative terms, which describe them, are 'slings and arrows' and 'a sea'.

In this example the terms 'outrageous fortune', 'troubles', etc. are also called 'tenor' and the terms 'slings and arrows' and 'a sea' are called 'vehicle'. Language is being used figuratively to make the ideas vivid. Another aspect of metaphor is that it demonstrates how a writer can respond to the complexity of experience, for, metaphor is an ordering or reconciling device that enables a writer to establish connections between different areas of experience. This can be seen at its most extreme in the use of the conceits in 'Metaphysical Poetry'. For example, in George Herbert's poem "The Collar" he writes of his urge to rebel against the restrictions of religion. The poem is crowded with images suggesting freedom and restraint. At one point Herbert describes himself as tied up by 'a rope of sands', this conceit of witty image suggests a labyrinth-like rope, but one that is very weak.

Metaphor is central to any notion of poetry that sees it as an art form concerned to confront a disordered and baffling world, for metaphor allows the artist to connect dissimilar areas of life.

It can also be argued that rather than establishing some pattern of connectedness in a baffling world, metaphor can work in the opposite direction, breaking up the conventional ways in which we think about the world. Metaphors can be said to create an effect of **DEFAMILIARISATION**: that is, it can be said to challenge our normal ways of thinking about things, restructuring our perceptions.

Another figure of speech is **METONYMY** in which the name of an attribute of a thing is substituted for the thing itself (e.g. 'the crown' for the monarchy). Metaphor works on the basis of connecting different areas of experience, while in metonymy there is already a connection between the words.

Certain other important figures of speech used in poetry are **PARADOX**, **PATHETIC FALLACY**, **PERSONIFICATION** etc. In addition to these there are also certain devices of sound used in poetry which contribute to the musical quality of poems.

They are *Alliteration*, *assonance*, *consonance*, *end-rhyme*, *internal rhyme*, *strong rhyme*, *weak-rhyme* etc. Examples are given below:

Paradox A self-contradictory statement, e.g. "Death, thou shalt die" (John Donne)

Pathetic Fallacy Attributing human feelings and actions to natural objects. E.g. A leaf "that dances as often as dance it can" (Coleridge)

Personification: An abstract concept is given a human shape and actions. E.g. Autumn in Keats' poem 'Ode to Autumn' is seen as a woman reaping land gathering the harvest

Alliteration Repetition of the same consonant at the beginning of two or more words in a line of poetry E.g. "Five miles meandering with a mazy motion" (Coleridge)

Assonance Repetition of the same vowel sound in two or more words in a line of poetry e.g. 'A host of golden daffodils' (Wordsworth)

Consonance Repetition of the same consonant sound before and after different vowels in two words

e.g. It seemed that out of battle I escaped
Down some profound dull tunnel, long since scooped
Through granites which titanic wards had groined
Yet also there encumbered sleepers groined

Rhyme Identify fo sound between two words, extending from the last fully stressed vowel to the end of the word E.g. hill, still, follow, hollow

Rhyme is usually employed at the end of lines (end-rhyme)

e.g. Twinkle, twinkle, little star
How I wonder what you are!

Eye-rhyme: Words spelt alike, but actually not rhyming E.g. love/prove

Half-rhyme: (Consonance). Repetition of the same consonant sounds before and after different vowels. E.g. groaned/groined

Internal rhyme Rhyme that occurs within a single line of poetry

Strong rhyme: (Masculine rhyme) Rhyme in single stressed syllables e.g. hill/still

Weak rhyme (Feminine rhyme): two rhyming syllables, a stressed one, followed by an unstressed one e.g. hollow/follow.

Reference *Literary Terms and CRITICISM* by John Peck and Martin Coyle.

THE TEACHING OF POETRY

Poetry is a genre of literature in which language is used in a different (deviant) manner. Therefore the language of poetry is different from the language of ordinary communication. There are different types of poems (such as odes, sonnets, lyrics, satires, epics, elegies, etc). Keats's 'Ode to a Nightingale' is an ode, Shakespeare's "When to the Sessions of Sweet Silent Thought" is a sonnet, Wordsworth's Daffodils is a lyric, Dryden's MacFlecknoe is a satire, Milton's *Paradise Lost* is an epic and Shelley's 'Adonais' is a pastoral elegy. Each type of poem is to be dealt with in the classroom in a separate manner.

When the teacher presents a poem in the class, the learners should get a holistic view of the same. Therefore it would be good if the teachers read out the poem aloud in the beginning of the class and ask the learners to listen. A few difficult words in the poem may cause some difficulty. Before a second reading of the poem it would be advisable to list out the words on the blackboard along with their meanings so that the learners/listeners will have no difficulty in pursuing the current of thought/ideas in the poem. After the second reading of the poem the learners can be asked to read the poem silently with comprehension. When the teacher is sure that the learners have understood the poem globally (as a whole) and orally (referring to particular lines and expressions) factual and inferential questions can be put to them and answers obtained. The answers can be either oral or written (in order to ensure practice in speech and writing).

The learners can also be asked to read the poem aloud in the class in order to familiarize them with the patterns of rhythm and rhyme present in the poem. (It is possible that a poem may yield more meanings than one. Learners should be encouraged to extract from the poem the meaning they are likely to get at, without ignoring the basic rules of linguistic interpretation).

A poem is an example of literature, i.e. a piece of art. So it is not only an understanding of the meaning/meanings of the poem that we aim at. The learners should also be able to appreciate the poem. For this purpose, the significance, in the context of the poem, of the figures of speech and peculiar turns of expression in the poem should be brought home to the mind of the learners. Instead of the teacher pointing them out, it is better that the learners themselves discover them with their own effort.

The teachers and syllabus makers should be very careful in the choice of poems to be taught. The experience underlying the poem should be familiar to the learners. In other words, the cultural and linguistic background of the poems should be such that they should not be entirely alien to the learners.

Teachers are often tempted to talk to the learners *about the poem* and the *poet* who wrote it. They may also talk about the poems using a lot of technical jargon in literary criticism. It would be better if the teachers keep such talk to the minimum. What is important is the poem and not a plethora of information about the poem. The teacher's job is to help the learners to discover the beauties of the poem by themselves.

The levels of difficulty of the poems (in respect of their vocabulary, syntax etc) should be taken into consideration. Especially in the early stages of the secondary course students' familiarity with the subject is crucial. In whatever manner we teach poetry it is important that the learners should be encouraged to understand that their personal (individual) response to the poems is what matters. Teachers should only facilitate such healthy responses.

Introductory Scanction

Monometer

A line of verse consisting of one metrical foot.

Ex: ^{*}
 I'm máde
 ^{*}
 A sháde
 ^{*}
 And láid
 ^{*}
 I'th' gráve
 ^{*}
 Thére háve
 ^{*}
 my cáve

Upon His Departure Hence

Herrick

Ex: Cándy^{*}
 ^{*}
 Is cándy^{*}
 ^{*}
 But líquor
 ^{*}
 Is quícker
 ^{*}
 Pót
 ^{*}
 Is nó^{*}t

Ogden Nash

Simple running meter (trochaic)

Ex: Tígher! Tíger! búrníng bríght

In the fforests of the níght

What ímmortal hand ór eye

Dare fráme thy féarful sýmmetry

Tiger

William Blake

METERS IN ENGLISH

Poetry - Verse

- 1 Syllable : The units or sections into which we divide up the word.
- 2 Foot : A group of syllables forming a metrical unit, Or a unit of rhythm. Foot is measured in terms of syllable variation: Long and Short, Stressed and unstressed.
- 3 Meter : (Gk 'measure') The term refers to the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in verse. In English verse meter is based on stress rather than quantity. A line may have fixed number of syllables and yet have varying number of stresses. As a rule meter keeps to a basic pattern, within which there are many variations called substitution.

In English verse the following meters are the commonest:

- i) Iambic U/ It's a rhythm each part of which (called an iambus) consists of one short or weak syllable followed by one long or strong syllable(iambic feet)

Ex: I saw three ships came sailing by

- ii) Trochaic /U (Gk 'running')

A metrical foot containing a stressed followed by an unstressed, syllable. The reverse of the iamb and thus producing a falling rhythm.

Falling rhythm

Ex: Crábbed áge and yóuth

Cánnót líve tógether

Yóuth ís full of pleá=ánce

Áge ís full of cáre

Yóuth líke sùmmér mórn

Age like winter's weather;
 Youth like summer brave,
 Age like winter bare;
 Youth is full of sport
 Age's breath is short

The stress pattern is thrown backwards in a line of verse so that it falls on the first syllable.

Rising rhythm

Occurs when the stress pattern is thrown forward in a line verse, so that it falls on the last syllable of the feet.

Midnight | Midnight | Midnight | Midnight
 Hark | at the hands | of the clock;
 Now dead | men rise | in the frost | of the stars
 And fists | on the coffins knock.
 They dropped | in their graves | without | one sound;
 Then they | were steady | and stiff.
 But now | they tear | through the frost | of the ground
 As heretic, drun | kard and thief.

iii) Anapaest (Gk 'beaten back')

A metrical foot comprising two unstressed syllables and one stressed: uu/ (The opposite of dactyl, one stressed syllable followed by two unstressed syllables.)

Ex: Anapaest

* * | léap and a bound | the swift Anapaests throng — Coleridge

* But to | the old inn | and the lights | and the fire

* And the fiddler's old tune | and the shuffling of feet;

* Soon for us | shall be quiet and rest | and desire,

* And tomorrow's uprising to deeds | shall be sweets.

Ex: Dactyl: (Gk 'finger')

A metrical foot consisting of one stressed syllable followed by two unstressed ones:
(Just like finger joint)

* Just for a | handful of | silver he | left us,

* Just for a | riband to | stick in his | coat —

* Found the one | gift of which | fortune he | reft us,

* Lost all the | others she | lets us devote.

I Alliteration:(L) Repeating and playing upon the same letter.

A figure of speech in which consonants, especially at the beginning of words, stressed syllables, are repeated.

Examples:

- 1) 'Five miles meandering with a mazy motion - 'Khubla Khan'
Coleridge

- ii) Nothing is so beautiful as spring when weeds, in wheels
shoot long and lovely and lush — 'Spring'

Hopkins

- iii) Our passions pray hut to primitive totems

As absurd as they all savage; science or no science,

FOOT NOTE

Quantity: The duration of the sound of a syllable; thus
the time needed for its pronunciation.

Duration, pitch, loudness and quality are the four
characteristics of the spoken word. In poetry the
duration of syllables (that is their phonetic time
value) is of particular importance.

Substitution: In verse, the replacement of one kind of
metrical foot by another. A common form
of substitution in English verse is putting
a trochee for an iamb at the beginning of
a line.

Ex. ^{*}Be^ˈlow | ^{*}the ^{*}ri^ˈver | ^{*}scram^ˈbled | ^{*}like | ^{*}a ^ˈgoat
 ^{*}Dis^ˈlod^ˈging | ^{*}stones. | ^{*}The ^ˈmoun^ˈtain | ^{*}stamped | ^{*}its ^ˈfoot,
 ^{*}Shak^ˈing, | ^{*}as ^ˈfrom | ^{*}a ^ˈtrance. | ^{*}And ^ˈI | ^{*}was ^ˈshut
 ^{*}With ^ˈwads | ^{*}of ^ˈsound | ^{*}into ^{*}a ^ˈsudden ^{*}quiet.

God's Little Mountain

- Geoffrey Hill

Form and Meaning of Verbs

1. He **TAKES** a run .
 - form → Present Tense
 - meaning → Present Time
2. You see, the Manager **ASKS** me to meet him at 3. I **GO** there and **WAIT** for 2 hours, he **DOES** not turn up .
 - form: Present Tense
 - meaning: Past Time
3. The PM **ARRIVES** in Bangalore tomorrow .
 - form → Present Tense
 - meaning → Future Time
4. I **AM READING** Derrida .
 - form → Present Progressive
 - meaning → Present Time (action in progress)
5. I **AM GOING** to Delhi tomorrow .
 - form → Present Progressive
 - meaning → Future Time
6. They **WENT** to Melbourne.
 - form → Past Tense
 - meaning → Past Time
7. They **CAME** just now.
 - form → Past Tense
 - meaning → Present Time
8. **WOULD** you close the window, please .
 - form → Past Tense
 - meaning → Present Time
9. You **HAD** better talk to the Director* .
 - form → Past Tense
 - meaning → Present Time
10. If you **DID** it, your father **WOULD** be angry.
 - form → Past Tense
 - meaning → Future Time

Six Theories Of Language Acquisition And Intervention

What they have been proposed as:

1. Biological Maturation Theory	necessary for language acquisition
2. Linguistic Rule Induction Theory	condition for language learning
3. Behaviourism	necessary for language acquisition
4. Information Processing Theory	condition for language learning
5. Cognitivism	condition for language learning
6. Social Interaction Theory	condition for language learning

7. Of these six, only the Linguistic Rule Induction Theory and Behaviourism have been proposed as comprehensive theories of necessary and sufficient conditions for language learning. The others relate to factors that are *necessary* for language acquisition to proceed normally rather than describing factors that are *sufficient* for explaining it. They are interactionist because they acknowledge the presence of multiple essential factors but don't claim that any single factor can explain the process of language acquisition completely.

1. Biological Maturation Theory:

Here language acquisition is related to observation of the universality of language acquisition by human beings. Because a system so complex as language is learned with such rapidity and at such a young age, its learning must be made possible by innate mechanisms.

"What is really meant by the claim that human language is innate is that it is biologically based. Human infants are specially prepared by virtue of being human to acquire a language with the unique features of human language." Helen Smith Cairns (P.11, 1996)

Such theories are called **nativist**. They contrast with **empiricist** theories, which emphasize the role of learning and influences of the environment on language acquisition (e.g. Bohannon & Warren-Leubecker, 1989). Basically, this is the traditional **nature** versus **nurture** debate. Empiricists claim that biological maturation plays a generalist role that is not unique to language; nativists claim that the human brain is specially designed to learn language, but accept that the

environment plays as well expressed this **interactionist** form of nativism in the view of contemporary psycholinguists

"We now see the phenomenon of human language and its acquisition as a special case of the close linkage between **nature and nurture**." Cairns (1996).

Neuroscientists who study brain maturation and growth (Eric Lenneberg 1967) are linked to linguists who view language as distinctly as human "instinct" (Ex, Edward Sapir, 1949, Chomsky, 1965, 1976, Pinker, 1994)

Brain has a structures and systems that specially supports language

Linguists focus attention on the rules and mechanisms for acquiring language (Linguistic Rule Induction Theory explains this); whereas neuroscientists focus directly on mechanisms of the brain itself.

2 Linguistic Rule Induction Theory

Language develops because of an **innate language acquisition device (LAD)**

The LAD is biologically based system that needs only to triggered to by evidence in the environment. Chomsky remarks.

"There are very deep and restrictive principles that determine the nature of human language and rooted in the specific character of the human mind." Language and Mind (1968)

Primary Assumptions

- 1 The end product of language learning is an internalized formal grammar, which is a finite set of rules, shared by all of the speakers of a language that can generate an infinite variety of possible sentences.
- 2 The majority of the rules of formal grammar are learned very early (before the age of 5 years), with similar patterns of development observed across languages and cultures, indicating that the environment must play a relatively minor role in the process, and, therefore, that human genetics must play a major role.
- 3 Only indirect links can be observed between the language input the child hears and the language output the child produces; furthermore, teaching efforts as corrections are rarely observed.

- 4 Yet children learn with little or no formal training to do such things as to understand ambiguous sentences (those with the same surface structure but different deep structures) and to understand and produce paraphrases (those that have different surface structures but the same deep structure)

2. Behavioural Theory.

Behavior explanations focus on learning process rather than the linguistic system. The primary proponent of behavioural theories of language acquisition has been B F Skinner. His book **Verbal Behaviour** (1957) published in the same year as **Syntactic Structure** (1957). The polarity of concepts advocated by these two theorists in the area of function versus structure, performance versus competence, and nurture versus nature contributed to interesting debate.

Primary Assumptions of Behavioural Theories of Language Acquisition

1. Language acquisition can be explained by focussing on the observable and measurable aspects of language behaviour.
2. Explanations of language acquisition should not rely on mentalistic constructs such as intentions or implicit knowledge of grammatical rules.
3. Rather, language acquisition is related to observable environmental conditions (stimuli) that co-occur with specific verbal behaviours (responses).
4. The term **verbal behaviour** is preferred over **language** because the structural aspect of linguistics is irrelevant to the language-learning process. Language as a skill does not differ essentially from any other behaviour. Language is something people do, not something they know.
5. The units of focus in the acquisition of verbal behaviour should not be words or sentences but "functional units".

3. Information Processing Theory

This theory focuses on how language is learned rather than the rules presumed to underlie it. Contrasting with behavioural theories, IPT (in several versions) emphasizes the role of internal information processing mechanisms in language acquisition and use.

Information processing theory in the older version proposes a set of serial information processes that act on incoming perceptual input from auditory (speech) or visual (print) sources to analyze it, comprehend it, formulate a response, and transform it back into physical form. Carrow-Woolfolk (1988) noted that this "single path serial model of cognitive processing (sensation → perception — cognition — memory)" has been in existence since the time of Aristotle." (p.10).

The later version is based on computer modelling of the language acquisition process.

The later version is based on computer modelling of the language acquisition process.

Primary Assumptions of Information Processing Theories of Language Development

1. Information Processing system encodes stimuli from the environment, interprets them, stores the result in memory, and allows retrieval of information previously stored.
2. Language acquisition depends on empiricist principles in that experience with linguistic evidence from the environment causes changes within processing mechanism.
3. Rather than starting with innate patterns of (probably neural) connections are equal; through experience, some connections become strengthened by repeated activations, whereas others (primitive patterns) are weakened (owing to lack of empirical evidence to activate them) until they disappear.
4. Newer models claim that patterns of information processing that account for language learning are parallel rather than serial.
5. The order of acquisition of language forms is cued by the functions (e.g. requesting, identifying location) of the forms) Forms that appear more frequently serve the same function (even if they are less frequent) are learnt first.

Information Processing Theory differs from Linguistic Theory by positing a set of processes that are not particularly unique to language (as the LAD is) but operate horizontally across multiple areas of cognitive functioning. If the linguistic mode is more accurate, language intervention programme should target such elements as grammatical rules and lexical relationships. If the information processing model is more accurate, language intervention programmes should target such processes as speech perception and comprehension, short-term memory, word retrieval, and other output organizational skills, depending on a student's individual profile.

Cognitive Theory (Jean Piaget 1896-1980 was a Swiss Scientist)

Cognitive theorists emphasize the sequence and rate of cognitive development as influencing the sequence and rate of language development. The essence of cognitive theory is that development can be explained across domains by postulating a general set of cognitive structure and processes among which language holds no particularly special position.

Primary Assumptions of Cognitive Theories of Language Development

1. Language is not innate and of itself, but cognitive precursors are.
2. Language is neither innate nor learned but emerges as a result of the child's constructivist activity.
3. Language is only one of several symbolizing abilities for representing and manipulating mental concepts about the world, all of which result from cognitive maturation, triggered by states of disequilibrium between current cognitive structures and new evidence from the environment.
4. A child's cognitive capabilities differ qualitatively as well as quantitatively from those of adults.
5. Yet, a constant across all stages of development is that adaptation processes are used either to assimilate new information into existing schemas, or, schemas by extending and combining them into new ones that are more complex.

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) is the classic cognitive development theorist. He was a Swiss scientist who profoundly influenced current understanding of normal cognitive development. He used (in 1926, 1952, 1969) the adaptation processes of **assimilation** and **accommodation** to explain cognitive developments in the stages outlined below. He describes the motivating force behind evolution of thought as **disequilibrium** between what children

encounter in the world and what they already organized in their minds.

Social Interaction Theory

Social interaction theories emphasize communicative purpose over language structure and the importance of context. This is because the **rules of social communication** differ from those of **linguistic structure**. Rather than being static representations social interactions vary with the situations which they occur. They involve situated uses that are "glued to their contextual backgrounds"

Primary Assumptions of Social Interaction Theories of Language Development

1. Language develops , not because of any innate linguistic competence or because of strict reinforcement principles, but because human beings are motivated to interact socially and to develop concepts of self and others.
2. The important elements of development are not abstract linguistic or cognitive structures, or concrete verbal behaviours, rather they are the phenomena of international and symbolic acts of speech, their conversational functions, their consequences for participants, and their context-creating power and context-dependent properties. (Dore, 1986).
3. Language acquisition occurs in the context of dyadic, dynamic interactions, which are motivated by the child's drive to develop a concept of self and to interact with others socially (not isolated efforts to construct a grammar, or passive processes controlled by external reinforcers.)
4. Parents (and other conversational partners) contribute significantly to the language acquisition process by adjusting their linguistic input to be compatible with the child's developing linguistic and communicative abilities and by supplying scaffold (i e supportive communicative structure) to allow the child to communicate despite primitive abilities (Bruner, 1968).

Vygotsky and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist (1896-1934), developed the idea that individual development has social origins. His ideas about child development and the relationship of thought of thought and language continue to exert a major influence on modern educational practices. In his book *Thought and Language* Vygotsky argues that early in its development, language is primarily a tool for social interaction. As development progresses, however, language becomes a medium through which children control their private interactions with the environment by talking aloud during play and verbalizing intended actions. Language eventually becomes a way of structuring actions, directing thought, and creating a concept of self.

Vygotsky thought that this transformation occurs through a process of cultural mediation. He saw cultural mediation (similar to what others have called scaffolding) as a process of assisting learners to move from elementary to higher levels of mental functioning. In view, elementary mental functions are characterized by their individual origins, control by natural environment., absence of conscious realization, and lack of mediation by psychological tools. Higher mental functions are characterized by their social origins and nature, voluntary control by the learner, natural processes, and independent mediation using psychological tools. (Wertsch, 1985, 1991).

"with assistance, every child can do more than he can by himself – though only within the limits set by the state of his development" (p 103). He called the range of this limits, which vary from child to child and context to context. The zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD is the difference between what a child can accomplish independently and what that child with the assistance of an intentioned adult (Vygotsky, 1978)

DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE

1. 0 – 6 weeks	————	Vegitative sounds
2. 6 weeks	————	Cooing
3. 16 weeks to 6 months	————	Laughter
4. 6 – 10 months	————	Babbling
5. 10 – 18 months	————	Two-word utterance
6. 2 years	————	Telegraphic speech
7. 2 years 6 months	————	Full sentences

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HOW DO HUMANS OBTAIN LANGUAGE

Empiricist perspective	Rationalist perspective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Originated from the ideas of Locke and Hume • Based on the premise that all knowledge is derived from experience • The new born is "tabula rasa" (Latin a mind not yet affected by experiences) - a clean slate. • Favours nurture in the nature-nurture debate • Developed into the behaviourist viewpoints and plays an important role in the Piagetian perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Originated from the ideas of Plato and Descartes * Based on the premise that certain fundamental ideas are innate * Language capacity is present from birth * favours nature in the nature-nurture debate * developed into Chomskian viewpoints

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